New England

BUSINESS REVIEW

DECEMBER
1960

Published monthly by the FEDERAL RESERVE BANK of BOSTON

Multipurpose Management of Camp Lands

Each summer, parents spend $80 million to send about 300,000 children to summer camps in rural New England. The large majority of these children comes from northeastern cities and suburbs and they are packed off to the country to breathe fresh air, develop new skills, and pick up a knowledge of the out-of-doors.

Authorities agree that camps generally improve the health and skills of young campers. They are not so sure that the average camper comes home with a much better knowledge of nature and conservation than when he started out. Many camp managers seem to believe that conservation is simply preservation. They do not permit timber cutting and tend to oppose anything that "disturbs" nature. More knowledgeable camp directors realize that frequently they must alter the landscape to develop the full potential of their land.

This article is a report on a detailed questionnaire survey of the management of more than 160,000 acres owned by the more than 1,000 children's camps scattered from Fairfield County, Connecticut to the northern part of Aroostook County, Maine. In general, the camps showed great interest in this study; 77 percent of those receiving questionnaires returned them.

(Continued on page 2)

Also New England, 1970: Textile Trends, *page* 5.

The findings should be of interest not only to camp directors but to many other landowners as well. In New England, the typical rural landowner is no longer a farmer but may be a professional man who likes to retreat to the country on weekends, an absentee landowner who has inherited the family farm, or a city worker who commutes 35 miles to his job. Or the ownership may rest with a paper company or a sportsmen's club. While each of these owners usually has one main reason for holding the land, he can often increase the value of his property by multiple-purpose management.

Land Ownership

This study was limited to children's camps which could conceivably carry out forestry and wildlife management practices. Camps located in cities or on leased public land were excluded. Results show that the camps having a total capacity of about 120,000 children (at one time) own about 160,000 acres of land and lease an additional 8,000 acres of private land. Thus the average camp has about 1.4 acres of land per camper, running from a low of 1.0 acres per camper in Massachusetts (where there are more day camps) to 2.4 acres per camper in Vermont.

Land is owned by 90 percent of the camps, another 7 percent only lease land, and 3 percent both own and lease land. The average camp covers 177 acres. Total camp acreage has increased by more than 60 percent since 1947. In the same period, total registration has increased by less than 40 percent.

The typical camp has both open and forested land and often marshlands and cutover forests as well. Nearly 90 percent of the camps adjoin water. About 20 camps are located on islands. Most are located on the shores of lakes.

Forestry Operations

Over the years, many camp directors have become aware that logging is compatible with their camp's operations. Timber cutting lets sunlight into camps and opens up the view of the adjoining lake or nearby mountain. It encourages new plants to take hold in intensively used areas around tents, cabins and trails, thereby helping to control erosion. Also, camps can profit from selling timber and at the same time develop forestry education projects.

The results of the survey show, however, that only 28 percent of the camps have permitted or are willing to permit timber cutting. The larger the camp, the greater likelihood of logging. Only 3 percent of the camps owning less than 10 acres permit it, while 17 and 41 percent respectively of those owning from 10–99 and 100 and over acres allow logging. However, many of the camps that now respond negatively may permit timber cutting when their trees are bigger.

The principal fear of those who do not permit logging is that the appearance of their camps will be destroyed by overcutting and by logging debris or "slash." On the other hand, one camp reports that their forester had marked too few trees for cutting and, as a result, they had received no offers for their timber. Many feel that logging can be satisfactorily controlled but that such operations require a competent supervisor and they do not know whom to contact.

Most of the camps which permit cutting get free help from a government forester — usually a state service forester, but sometimes an Extension Service or Soil Conservation Service man. These foresters mark trees, give the camp a detailed report on volume marked by species and size classes, and furnish a list of prospective buyers and a suggested timber sale contract. But public foresters are restricted as to the number of days of service they can provide to any one landowner, and they may not enter into sales negotiations nor assist the landowner in supervising the sale. For these reasons, a substantial minority of the large camps hire private consulting foresters not only to give them advice but also to mark their trees for cutting, arrange for selling the timber, and provide detailed supervision of the timber sale contract. In general, the best jobs have been done by consulting foresters with experience in planning for aesthetic values as well as market price in logging operations.

All told, 90 percent of those who allow logging claim that their logging operations are "supervised" by a forester or "some other person" well acquainted with good forestry practices. In the context of the comments written in the questionnaires, it seems that a majority of the camps depend on public foresters to help in marking the trees, but that the sale of timber and the timber cutting are actually "supervised" by camp personnel who have little knowledge of how to plan for or control logging.

One novel way of solving the "slash" disposal problem is that demonstrated at the experimental camp operated by Springfield College at Springfield, Massachusetts. Here the smaller pieces of logging debris are sliced up in a portable "chipper" and the chips are strewn on camp trails to stop erosion. The larger limbs and tops are used for firewood.

About a dozen camps encourage their children to build brush piles to provide cover for birds and rabbits. If established at some distance from buildings and main trails where adults smoke, this is a safe method of slash disposal.

Wildlife Management Practices

The questionnaire replies show that many camp directors consider nature education, posting the land against hunters, and protecting the wild flowers from campers as "wildlife management." But wildlife management as used in this survey is defined as the conscious control of cover and food sources so that desirable species are encouraged and undesirable types are controlled. The final results show that only 29 percent of the camp owners make any conscious attempt to provide this type of management.

The responses in this case were not, as with those on forestry operations, closely associated with the acreage owned by the camp. Almost 23 percent of those owning less than 10 acres tried to practice some type of wildlife management. This figure increased to only 26 percent for those owning between 10–99 acres and to 32 percent for those owning more than 100 acres.

One reason for the lack of wildlife management on camp lands appears to be the scarcity of government technicians who can advise camp managers. About 50 of the responding camps voluntarily requested more information about wildlife management. Many of these specifically asked what public agency they could contact. Most wildlife research and demonstration work done by Federal and state agencies is devoted to migratory birds and to game species such as deer and pheasant. But the typical camp is equally interested in song birds, rabbits, chipmunks, muskrats and the like.

Surprisingly enough, one of the surest methods of increasing wildlife on forested land is to permit logging. A dense forest can be a "biological desert," a densely shaded forest floor providing relatively little food and cover for the larger mammals and birds. Only after an "understory" of bushes and other food plants is established can many forms of wildlife thrive. For example, many parts of the Northeast now have many more deer than they had in 1620, simply because more food is available in the cutover forests and along the margins of cultivation.

Many camps claim that they encourage wildlife by planting trees. It is difficult to evaluate these replies. Young trees and the surrounding high grass, weeds and bushes provide an excellent environment for rodents and many species of birds. But as the trees grow, they shade out much of the lower growth. Timber cutting at regular intervals can do much to maintain the wildlife population.

It is not surprising that 36 percent of the camps which permit logging also consciously practice wildlife management. This compares with 27 percent for those who do not have timber cutting. However, 64 percent of those who do have logging claim to have no wildlife management. Many of these camps may, unknowingly, have much better wildlife management than other camps without logging that are making efforts to attract birds and animals.

A number of camps reported that they have established bird houses and feeding stations, provided food plants, and maintained a brush edge next to open fields. All of these are useful wildlife management practices. However, no camps have established buckwheat, rye grass or clover patches or set out salt licks to entice deer into the camp. Salt licks are illegal in New Hampshire and are of questionable legality in Vermont, but may be used during the summer months in Maine, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island providing the deer are unharmed. Salt licks also can be used to attract porcupines away from buildings, thus controlling the damage caused by their gnawing.

No camps mentioned liming or fertilizing their ball fields to make the grass more attractive to the rabbits in the adjoining brush, or planting ladino clover on trails and logging roads to stop erosion and provide food for grouse and deer. Planting fruit trees, shrubs and vines, and removing surrounding competitive species are useful practices. For example, wild apple trees provide plentiful fall food for rabbits, grouse, and deer. In some parts of New England, multiflora rose and wild grape attract birds. In many camps at least some of these techniques would produce more wildlife than would be saved by posting the land against hunters.

Almost 40 percent of the camps owning land permit the general public to hunt on their property, except during camping seasons. The figures range from 9 percent in densely populated Rhode Island to 55 percent in sparsely populated Maine. But the comments on many questionnaires clearly indicated that many other camps would like to post their lands but are afraid of possible public relations problems. This is particularly true of agency camps that depend upon public subscriptions. Moreover, many camp directors claim that "no hunting" signs keep off only the desirable, law-abiding hunters.

Almost without exception the camps do not sell hunting rights and consider this an impos-

A supplement for this article is available on request from the research department of the Federal Reserve Bank of Boston. It includes the survey questionnaire, a detailed breakdown by state of the replies, and a map showing the location of all reporting camps.

sibility. However, one private camp which has excellent hunting on its land is considering leasing its property during the hunting season to a sportsmen's club. The owner hopes that by choosing a responsible group of sportsmen he can exclude undesirable hunters.

The typical camp has such a short season (mid-June through August) that this type of cooperative arrangement seems logical. In 1959, sportsmen's clubs in New England already owned or leased about 100,000 acres and were looking for more land.[1]

Perhaps the biggest obstacle to cooperative effort is the difference in outlook of a person in charge of a children's camp and a man running a sportsmen's club. The camp director may view sportsmen as spoilers of nature while the club president may be fearful that sportsmen would be "over regulated" by the camps.

Nevertheless, the same type of land management benefits both groups. For example, game birds which are reared in pens by many sportsmen's clubs would be of great interest to the children in a summer camp.

Management of Wetlands, Streams, Pond and Lakes

About 90 percent of the camps are situated on or around a lake, stream, pond, or salt water. But very few attempt to "manage" these natural resources. Almost half the camps adjoin public lakes or ponds where the state fish and game department is responsible for stocking the waters and removing trash fish. In the case of a few artificial ponds, the Soil Conservation Service provides technical assistance for fishery management. About 69 of the 643 reporting camps with water on their land stock their streams or ponds for camper use. Naturally, these camps forbid public fishing on their property. Most camps are located on public lakes or ponds where they have no power to control public fishing except by limiting access across their own lands.

However, a camp can make small modifications in the shoreline of a lake or pond to provide food plants and a haven for a small number of muskrat families and other wildlife. One camp has successfully created a small demonstration marsh. And many camps throughout New England have established food plants in or adjoining their waters for fish and waterfowl. One camp, located on salt water, reports that it may develop clam and oyster beds for its campers.

The Recruiting Camp Leaders

Some persons well acquainted with summer camps feel that little good will come of improved land management practices unless nature counselors, well versed in forestry and wildlife management, are recruited. Most camp counselors are well prepared to referee ball games or to teach canoeing, boating, swimming or leathercraft. But very few have the technical training or the temperament to direct conservation programs. As a result, conservation education in many camps simply amounts to wild flower and tree identification. Many of the most interesting aspects of the rural landscape are ignored.

Forest management and wildlife management are most successful when integrated into camp activities. Often the smallest details of management are the most useful. One camp has found that it can encourage a variety of viburnums to grow on its swamp land by cutting down the larger trees. The arrowwood viburnum puts forth a luxurious growth of thin stems which makes ideal marshmallow forks. The children no longer damage valuable trees and bushes to procure toasting forks.

One authority has suggested seeding special plants in small areas of a field for grasshopper management. The changes in the grasshopper population fascinate the campers and make a useful take-off point for other aspects of nature education. Some camps bring in a public or a private consulting forester to demonstrate a wide variety of forestry practices. Still others have campers help build erosion control structures.

Almost all authorities agree that nature education should not be a plea for keeping things "natural" with as little tree cutting and hunting as possible. Admittedly, many camps should preserve "natural" areas of different types. Examples are a sample bog, a hemlock ravine, an abandoned field clothed with birch and pine, or an old-growth stand of beech and sugar maple. Such areas have a unique beauty, and they can serve as a basis for comparison with areas managed for forestry, wildlife and recreation.

But protecting the whole camp from timber cutting has made many camps dank, gloomy places with eroding trails and camping areas. These worn out camps testify to the inadequacy of the "don't touch" philosophy which has prevented campers and staff alike from learning to come to grips with natural resource management. Most of these camps can be partially rehabilitated. But some administrators prefer to buy new sites in much the same way as the natives in Africa used to burn the jungle, grow a few crops, and then move on to a new locale to repeat the wasteful process.

Alert camp leaders now emphasize multipurpose management. They are teaching campers conservation and at the same time are making full use of their camp's natural resources.

[1] "Sportsmen and Land — A Conflict of Freedoms," *New England Business Review*, July 1959.

New England, 1970

Textile Trends

Textile manufacturing in the United States has often been regarded as a depressed industry. It suffers from low profits, chronic overproduction, decreasing employment, increasing foreign competition, and severe competition from other industries. What is not generally known is that the textile industry is going through a period of revolutionary technological improvement and that various segments of the industry are showing considerable strength.

Between 1947 and 1960, New England textile employment dropped from about 280,000 to 120,000. In 1947 the industry was responsible for 19 percent of total regional manufacturing employment; today it has only 9 percent. In the postwar period, the rehabilitation of the hard-hit textile cities has been one of New England's major problems.

The story may be somewhat different during the next 10 years. Although the New England textile industry may well lose another 40,000 employees, the mills are expected to make giant strides in productivity. Total production may remain relatively constant. There will likely be a continued movement away from broadwoven textile manufacturing and an increasing emphasis on the more competitive specialty items.

Authorities expect that the social costs of the expected employment cutbacks will be much less serious than in the past. Job losses will be spread out over a longer period of time and they will probably come about through the retirement of older workers and the layoff of the younger and more mobile workers.

Technology and Productivity

New fibers, new combinations of fibers, faster and more efficient machines, and radically different production methods are revolutionizing textile manufacturing. The best available statistics suggest that in the postwar period textile output per employee man-hour has gone up about 4 percent per year in New England as well as in the United States. This compares with an approximate 3 percent annual increase for all manufacturing in the nation.

Between 1947 and 1954, the average annual textile industry productivity gain was about 3.5 percent in the United States. The available statistical evidence suggests that New England's productivity gain during this period was roughly one-third greater. This faster New England rate is partially explained by the closing of the oldest and least efficient mills, which automatically increased the average for the remaining mills in the region.

Between 1954 and 1958, the textile industry began to spurt ahead as a result of technological innovations. During this period, the average annual productivity increase in the United States was 4.5 percent per year. However, the statistics indicate that the New England annual gain was only about three-fourths of the national rate.

Even greater gains might have been realized if profit margins had permitted larger capital expenditures. New models of textile machinery have rendered obsolete much of the existing textile machinery in this country. The U. S. Department of Commerce has reported that machines on display at recent textile machinery shows operate at speeds double and triple those of similar equipment displayed as recently as 1954. Automatic shuttleless looms and pushbutton controlled looms are now available. Actual case studies have shown that the output per man-hour in some mills has been tripled in a few years as the result of modernization programs.

Industrial experts expect a continuation of rapid productivity improvement during the next 10 years. For the United States, an average gain of more than 4 percent a year is a reasonable estimate. New England, which produces more specialties, may lag slightly behind. For all regions, however, rapid productivity gains will continue to play a large part in decreasing the demand for labor in the textile industry.

This article is largely drawn from the study, "New England Textile Employment in 1970" by Prof. William H. Miernyk of Northeastern University, a recognized authority on the economics of the textile industry. This study is one of a series of 1970 projections for the New England economy sponsored by the Federal Reserve Bank of Boston. In this projection, it has been assumed that between now and 1970 there will be no fundamental change in the economic organization of the United States and in our relations with other countries, that there will be no major technological breakthrough in textiles, and that there will be no major change in our international trade policy. The projection will undoubtedly be in error if these assumptions are not realized.

Exports and Imports

In 1947, exports accounted for about 9 percent of domestic textile production. But between 1947 and 1957, as textile capacity in other countries expanded, there was a serious decline. For example, exports of broad-woven goods declined by 41 percent. Exports now account for about 5 percent of the national production. They are expected to continue to decline but at only half the 1947-1958 rate. By 1970, exports may represent only 3.6 percent of domestic production.

Although imports of textile mill products have amounted to less than 5 percent of domestic consumption in recent years, they have increased rapidly from almost nothing in 1947. Imports have severely hurt producers of woolens and worsteds and manufacturers of specialty items such as velveteens and ginghams. For example, imports this year of woolens and worsteds will amount to over 20 percent of United States domestic production. Almost half of the nation's woolen and worsted manufacturing is concentrated in New England, and accounts for 28 percent of the region's textile employment.

The future of imports depends entirely on future trade policy. What appears most likely is that textile imports will continue to increase, but at a declining rate.

Population and Consumption

Between 1947 and 1958, the population of the United States increased by more than 20 percent. Even so, a rise in imports, a decline in exports, and a decline in per capita consumption, kept total domestic textile production from increasing. If the population of the United States increases during the next decade by the anticipated 20 percent or more, domestic textile production will probably increase substantially.

Much, however, depends on trends in per capita consumption. Past declines have reflected the sharp curtailment in industrial demand for fibers and fabrics. Paper, plastics, aluminum foil, and other light metals have been increasingly substituted for textile fibers and fabrics. This trend will continue.

But the textile industry is becoming more aggressive in its search for new industrial uses, especially for synthetic fabrics. For example, fiber glass is now being used to make moulded machine parts. Further developments of synthetics are expected.

This projection assumes a decline of slightly over 5 percent in per capita consumption of all textile products during the next decade. This is about one half the rate of decline during the postwar era. Such an improved situation combined with a substantial population increase would help to stabilize the textile industry.

Wage Rates and Labor Force

Compared with Southern producers, New England textile employers have traditionally suffered from a wage cost disadvantage. Past migration to the South can be largely explained by this fact. And despite the large postwar exodus of the textile industry from New England, the actual discrepancy in the average wage paid the production workers (with allowance for interregional differences in the composition of the textile industry) between the United States and New England increased from four cents to eight cents between 1947 and 1954. Thus the wage gap between the South and New England increased even while a large textile migration took place.

Recent wage history has been different. Wages for production workers have moved up substantially in the South, but only sluggishly in New England. Between 1954 and 1958, the difference between the average wage paid production workers in New England and the rest of the United States has gone down from eight cents to four cents.

New England mills do have some difficulty in maintaining an experienced labor force. In this region, textile manufacturers produce more specialties and have more seasonal variation in employment as well as more year-to-year instability. In 1959, for example, the average layoff rate per 100 employees per month was 2.5 in New England; the national rate was only 1.2.

In addition, there are probably more higher income job openings for textile workers in other industries in New England than in the South. This may explain why the average quit rate in New England in 1959 was 1.9, and in the United States only 1.6.

All told, New England mills are forced to do about 50 percent more hiring each year than mills in other parts of the country. This undoubtedly affects their efficiency and increases labor training costs.

New England's Future

No precise measures of the competitive position of the various types of New England textile manufacturers are available. The statistics in the table on the next page are presented merely as crude indicators. They show that the value added per dollar of payroll in New England is virtually the same or higher than the national average in nine of the 24 listed segments of the textile industry. These nine groups of producers were responsible for about 30 percent of New England textile employment in 1958. Also, plants producing knitted outerwear, coated fabrics, and padding and

upholstery filling as well as thread mills, yarn throwing mills, and wool finishing plants showed substantially larger gains in production than plants producing comparable items in the country at large.

On the other hand, yarn mills, cotton and synthetic finishing plants, wool carpet plants, and producers of cotton and synthetic broadwoven goods appear to be less competitive. They all have relatively low productivity and have consistently lost in both employment and value added by manufacturer at a faster rate in New England than in the nation.

By 1970, the output of the textile industry in the United States could increase by about 5 percent. New England's output will probably remain constant. On the other hand, United States textile employment will probably drop by about 185,000 persons including about 40,000 in New England. Today New England has about 13 percent of United States textile employment; in 1970 it may have only 10 percent.

Only modest shifts in the industry's employment within the region are anticipated over the next decade. Massachusetts with 40 percent and Rhode Island with 24 percent of regional textile employment are expected to maintain their relative importance. On the other hand, a larger decline is expected in Connecticut than in Maine and this may well reverse their current shares of 13 and 12 percent by the year 1970.

Within the textile industry in New England, there will be vigorous growth, stagnation, or liquidation depending upon the individual company and its particular situation. Much depends on the ability of New England firms to finance the necessary capital expenditures and to take advantage of modern laborsaving devices. Between 1954 and 1958, capital expenditures per employee in New England averaged about 25 percent less than the national average. This was not equally true of all parts of the industry in New England. Subindustries, such as yarn throwing mills, narrow fabric mills, waste processing plants, cordage and twine mills, and producers of nonwoven felt, invested about as much or more in 1954 and 1958 as their counterparts in other parts of the country.

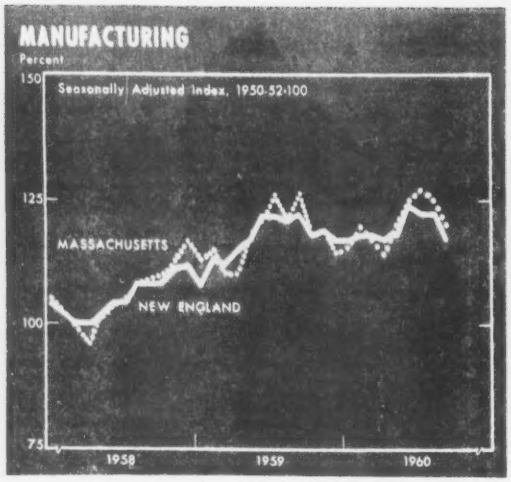
TEXTILE TRENDS 1954 – 1958

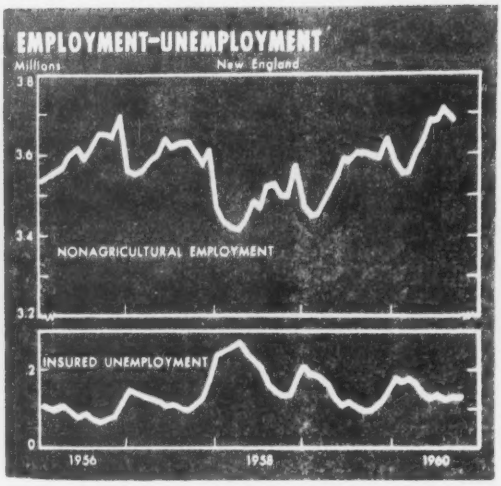
	Employment						Value Added by Manufacturer						Value Added Per Payroll Dollar		Capital Expenditures Per Employee (Dollars)			
	1954		1958		% Change 1954-1958		1954		1958		% Change 1954-1958		1958		1954		1958	
	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.	N.E.	U.S.
	(Thousands)						(Millions of Dollars)											
All Textile Mill Products[1]	160.4	1,002.4	122.2	887.8	−24	−11	801.7	4,517.0	720.3	4,860.4	−10	+8	1.62	1.68	160	216	190	236
Woolen & Worsted Manufacturers																		
Scouring & Combing Plants	5.7	7.0	3.7	6.1	−36	−14	29.1	35.1	24.7	39.5	−15	+13	1.81	1.75	227	341	115	207
Yarn Mills, Wool, Exc. Carpet	9.9	17.8	8.3	15.4	−17	−13	46.4	79.0	45.9	87.6	−1	+11	1.67	1.72	159	185	161	178
Woolen & Worsted Fabrics	29.0	62.5	22.4	49.9	−23	−20	143.0	315.7	137.6	308.2	−4	−2	1.68	1.69	136	188	124	168
Finishing Wool Textiles	1.0	4.2	1.5	4.8	+60	+14	4.8	23.1	10.4	35.7	+114	+54	1.77	1.94	237	310	246	169
Yarn & Thread Mills																		
Yarn Throwing Mills	.5	11.8	.7	8.8	+20	−26	2.8	54.0	4.5	50.2	+60	−7	2.07	1.90	290	271	359	328
Thread Mills	3.7	13.9	3.6	11.1	−2	−20	18.5	62.7	20.2	61.9	+9	−1	1.63	1.76	115	614	88	160
Yarn Mills, Cotton System	4.2	85.3	1.3	76.1	−70	−11	15.8	298.8	5.5	343.5	−65	+15	1.34	1.68	75	217	286	275
Broad-Woven Fabrics																		
Cotton Broad-Woven Fabrics	29.6	296.2	18.3	242.5	−38	−18	119.9	1,127.5	86.7	1 133.9	−28	+1	1.52	1.57	101	186	92	199
Synthetic Broad-Woven Fabrics	19.2	90.0	9.6	82.3	−50	−9	94.2	422.8	55.4	477.0	−41	+13	1.66	1.71	101	144	153	182
Narrow Fabric Mills	10.4	25.7	9.6	24.5	−8	−5	47.3	121.5	53.6	141.1	+13	+16	1.59	1.65	173	187	277	257
Knitting Mills																		
Full-Fashioned Hosiery Mills	1.3	60.2	.6	33.8	−51	−44	5.0	267.0	3.1	174.8	−38	−35	1.85	1.68	107	128	57	178
Seamless Hosiery Mills	1.1	63.4	1.1	69.9	−5	+10	4.3	202.5	4.1	293.4	−5	+45	1.36	1.65	319	205	143	194
Knit Outerwear Mills	4.1	46.4	6.2	60.8	+54	+31	16.7	231.7	30.2	337.5	+80	+46	1.56	1.65	179	212	131	196
Knit Underwear Mills	.8	31.3	.4	27.7	−48	−11	2.6	110.6	3.0	131.9	+15	+19	2.09	1.63	66	95	80	199
Knit Fabric Mills	2.8	16.8	3.0	18.4	+8	+9	22.0	113.1	27.4	152.3	+24	+35	2.10	2.06	299	370	331	394
Finishing Textiles, Except Wool	21.4	79.3	16.8	73.6	−22	−7	130.4	464.2	98.1	455.9	−25	−2	1.38	1.54	229	276	289	303
Carpets & Rugs																		
Wool Carpets & Rugs	4.4	30.1	3.1	25.1	−29	−17	25.8	191.4	22.4	188.7	−13	−1	1.70	1.91	150	419	452	500
Carpets & Rugs, Except Wool	.6	11.5	.9	13.7	+44	+19	2.7	67.1	4.5	112.3	+65	+67	1.69	2.70	50	432	272	432
Miscellaneous Textile Goods																		
Felt Goods, N.E.C.	1.3	6.0	1.2	4.6	−2	−24	9.4	41.7	10.7	44.6	+13	+7	1.87	2.10	400	271	305	240
Lace Goods[2]	3.3	7.4	2.9	6.8	−11	−9	17.8	37.7	15.9	37.2	−10	−1	1.38	1.43	315	261	121	205
Padding & Upholstery Filling	.6	9.1	.5	7.1	−14	−22	3.3	61.5	4.0	55.9	+20	−9	1.91	1.89	243	382	250	333
Processed Textile Waste	1.7	5.8	1.4	4.6	−20	−20	10.2	30.7	9.3	30.1	−9	−2	1.69	1.77	338	262	252	199
Coated Fabrics, Exc. Rubberized	1.8	8.5	3.2	10.6	+79	+23	13.1	80.3	30.6	102.5	+133	+28	2.01	1.83	273	482	443	861
Cordage & Twine	2.0	12.3	1.8	9.6	−10	−23	16.3	77.3	12.6	64.9	−23	−16	1.94	1.97	225	212	252	167

Source: U.S. Census of Manufactures

[1]The industry totals shown in the above table are the sum of the figures for the listed segments of the textile industry. They are lower than the totals shown in the final 1954 and the preliminary 1958 U.S. Census of Manufactures because (1) detailed data are not available for a few of the small subindustries, (2) the Bureau of the Census intends to exclude other subindustries from the textile industry classification in the final report on the 1958 Census of Manufactures.

[2]New England includes only data for Connecticut and Rhode Island.





MANUFACTURING INDEXES (seasonally adjusted)	MASSACHUSETTS (1950-52 = 100)			NEW ENGLAND (1950-52 = 100)			UNITED STATES (1957 = 100)		
	Oct. '60	Sept. '60	Oct. '59	Oct. '60	Sept. '60	Oct. '59	Oct. '60	Sept. '60	Oct. '59
All Manufacturing	116	120	118	115	117	118	107	107	102
Primary Metals	91	97	70	89	93	88	79	80	44
Textiles	44	42	49	62	63	68	n.a.	108	111
Shoes and Leather	115	123	110	120	124	121	n.a.	n.a.	104
Paper	103	103	108	124	122	124	n.a.	112	114

	NEW ENGLAND	Percent Change from:		UNITED STATES	Percent Change from	
	Oct. '60	Sept. '60	Oct. '59	Oct. '60	Sept. '60	Oct. '59
BANKING AND CREDIT						
Commercial and Industrial Loans ($ millions) (Weekly Reporting Member Banks)	1,456	0	+ 5	31,475	0	+ 6
Deposits ($ millions) (Weekly Reporting Member Banks)	4,488	+ 2	− 1	110,196	+ 1	+ 2
Check Payments ($ millions) (Selected Cities)	9,042	+ 1	− 1	233,110	− 3	− 1
Consumer Installment Credit Outstanding (index, 1950–52 = 100)	255.6	0	+11	284.0	0	−10
TRADE						
Department Store Sales (index, seas. adj. 1947–49 = 100)	129	+ 2	0	150	+ 4	+ 2
Department Store Stocks (index, seas. adj. 1947–49 = 100)	152	0	+ 5	167	− 1	+ 6
EMPLOYMENT, PRICES, MAN-HOURS, & EARNINGS						
Nonagricultural Employment (thousands)	3,656	− 1	+ 1	53,676	0	+ 2
Insured Unemployment (thousands) (excl. R. R. and temporary programs)	128	+ 1	+36	1,683	+ 3	+27
Consumer Prices (index, 1947–49 = 100)	129.3 (Mass.)	0	+ 2	127.3	0	+ 1
Production-Worker Man-Hours (index, 1950 = 100)	85.0	+ 2	− 5	97.3	− 1	− 2
Weekly Earnings in Manufacturing ($)	81.30 (Mass.)	+ 2	0	91.48	+ 1	+ 3
OTHER INDICATORS						
Construction Contract Awards ($ thous.) (3-mos. moving averages Aug., Sept., Oct.)						
Total	174,050	− 3	+10	3,244,379	− 3	+ 5
Residential	76,418	+ 8	+ 6	1,366,809	+ 2	−10
Public Works	20,130	−26	−15	570,455	− 8	+33
Electrical Energy Production (index, seas. adj. 1947–49 = 100)*	219	0	+ 7	273	+ 2	+ 9
Business Failures (number)	59	+ 7	+11	1,344	+ 6	+20
New Business Incorporations (number)	796	− 3	− 1	13,760	− 7	− 5

*Figure for last week of month

n.a. = not available